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- *Need for New Teachers*
- *School-Board Rules*
- *Handicapped Children*
- *School Salaries*
- *Merit Salary Plans*

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Colleges Producing 139,000 Teachers in 1961

The supply still falls short of the number needed to eliminate half-day sessions, add educational services, and replace unprepared persons

THE TIME IS AT HAND for a sober review of the efforts to obtain more teachers. Changing conditions have not reduced the over-all need, but the distribution of future requirements among the teaching fields and grade levels demands a new emphasis upon recruitment.

Along with the need for more classrooms, the shortage of competent teachers has been the chief burden of the public schools for two full decades. First in the elementary, and now also in the high schools, the onrush of more and more students has focused attention upon numbers—ever greater numbers without time to take stock, or to arrange in order of priority the demands for adequately prepared persons to meet the changing educational needs of our society.

The Fourteenth (1961) Annual National Teacher Supply and Demand Report documents the nature of some of these changes. The report not only points up the need for more effective counseling; it also provides a body of facts which should be in the hands of every counselor, supervisor, principal, and teacher, particularly those working with high-school juniors and seniors and college freshmen and sophomores. Sponsors of FTA Clubs and leaders in parent-teacher groups will also find these up-to-date facts to be useful.

With the activities of the total manpower force of the nation becoming ever more complex, the intelligent choice of an occupation should be made only with all available information at hand. Among bright young men and women there is much natural interest in teaching as a career. But before the decision is made to devote four or more post-high-school years to formal preparation, the extent, nature, and variety of likely opportunities should be examined thoughtfully. Here are some of the pertinent facts:

- The class of 1961 promises to produce 139,061 bachelor's degree graduates who will be eligible for standard teaching certificates. This will be an increase of 6.8 percent over the 130,203 produced a year earlier.
- The new graduates prepared for *high-school* teaching will total 85,427, an increase of 10.1 percent, while the new graduates prepared for *elementary-school* teaching will total only 53,634, an increase of just 1.9 percent.
- Recent experience indicates that only about 68 percent of these newly qualified high-school and about 82 percent of these newly qualified elementary-school eligibles will enter classroom service next September. This means that the realistic "new supply" is approximately 58,000 high-school and

1—NEW SUPPLY OF TEACHERS COMING FROM COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES IN 1961

Type of preparation	Men	Women	Total	Percent change from 1960
Elementary-school teaching:				
120 semester hours	6,830	46,804	53,634	+1.9%
90 semester hours	39	209	248	+23.4
60 semester hours	372	2,726	3,098	−17.0
30 semester hours	53	388	441	+93.4
Elementary-school total	7,294	50,127	57,421	+1.1%
High-school teaching:				
Agriculture	1,339	5	1,344	−2.5%
Art	1,030	1,987	3,017	+11.0
Commerce	2,848	4,506	7,354	+3.5
English	2,888	7,776	10,664	+14.7
Foreign languages	864	1,892	2,756	+26.5
French	281	913	1,194	.....
German	104	136	240	.....
Latin	145	158	303	.....
Russian	16	7	23	.....
Spanish	280	617	897	.....
Other	38	61	99	.....
Home economics	3	4,987	4,990	+3.7
Industrial arts	3,960	46	4,006	+5.8
Journalism	41	69	110	+2.8
Library science	54	402	456	−10.1
Mathematics	4,358	2,325	6,683	+18.2
Music	2,539	2,977	5,516	+6.1
Physical education (men)	7,771	.....	7,771	+6.0
Physical education (women)	.....	3,485	3,485	+9.7
Science	5,798	2,451	8,249	+15.9
General science	2,371	906	3,277	+20.0
Biology	2,264	1,220	3,484	+18.9
Chemistry	741	275	1,016	+3.8
Physics	422	50	472	−1.9
Social studies	9,617	5,088	14,705	+11.4
Speech	811	1,491	2,302	+11.3
Other	986	1,033	2,019	+4.1
High-school total	44,907	40,520	85,427	+10.1%
Grand total (college graduates only)	51,737	87,324	139,061	+6.8%

Based on reports from all institutions in all 50 states and the District of Columbia in which students may pursue the courses required for the standard teaching certificate.

44,000 elementary-school candidates who can be expected to come from the 1961 class of college graduates.

• To staff the schools next September with enough teachers to meet the needs of all students a total of 240,000 should be employed.

• Since elementary-school teaching positions outnumber those in high school in the ratio of about 8 to 5, since the percent of loss each year is about the same, and since the percent of increase in enrollments will differ only a little, the division of the total new supply between the two grade levels continues to be out of balance, and the current trend is toward the extension of this imbalance.

• The distribution of the newly eligible candidates among the high-school

teaching fields is out of balance with the need, but the *trend* for the past three years has been favorable—a greater proportion of the new supply is in the fields of greatest shortage.

- Among the high-school fields, the promised gain in new foreign language teachers is greatest, up 26.5 percent from last year.
- The promised increase in new mathematics teachers will be 18.2 percent; and in science, 15.9 percent.
- Other above-average increases will be in English, 14.7 percent; social studies, 11.4 percent; speech, 11.3 percent; and art, 11.0 percent.
- The most notable loss will be in the new supply of librarians, down 10.1 percent. Below-average increases are indicated in music, 6.1 percent; industrial arts, 5.8 percent; home economics, 3.7 percent; and commerce, 3.5 percent.
- Prospects for relief from the nationwide shortage remain about the same. For several years, the annual reports show, the total number of new teachers employed has just about accounted for (a) replacements and (b) expanded enrollments, but has not made possible (c) relief from overcrowding and half-day sessions, (d) addition of needed educational services, or (e) replacement of unprepared persons now in classroom service.

The New Supply for 1961

New teachers (those who were not teaching the preceding year) come from two major sources: (a) the most recent class of college graduates to qualify for the standard certificate, and (b) the general population. The latter group, made up of former teachers, graduate students, homemakers, employees leaving other occupations, liberal arts college graduates with little or no professional preparation, and miscellaneous others, cannot be identified in advance of their actual application for

2—CHANGE IN SUPPLY OF NEW QUALIFIED TEACHERS, 1960 TO 1961*

State	Elementary school	High school
Alabama	−7.3%	+12.5%
Alaska	+28.6	−11.1
Arizona	+8.9	+21.9
Arkansas	+2.1	+17.2
California	+15.6	+30.0
Colorado	+10.5	+9.8
Connecticut	+17.6	+4.1
Delaware	+18.3	+20.5
District of Columbia	+2.1	−2.0
Florida	−4.1	+3.4
Georgia (White)	+6.5	+9.8
Georgia (Negro)	−32.2	−18.0
Hawaii	+5.1	+16.7
Idaho	−29.1	−5.9
Illinois	−3.0	+4.8
Indiana	+4.7	+9.4
Iowa	+1.9	−3.7
Kansas	−15.1	+11.0
Kentucky	+1.8	+14.1
Louisiana	+0.9	+21.9
Maine	+16.3	+9.7
Maryland	+1.3	+14.7
Massachusetts	+0.4	+0.4
Michigan	+1.8	+6.5
Minnesota	−1.6	+5.3
Mississippi (White)	+8.2	+25.4
Mississippi (Negro)	−30.4	+30.2
Missouri	−4.6	+12.0
Montana	−5.6	+10.0
Nebraska	+4.4	+3.1
Nevada	+15.3	−41.2
New Hampshire	+15.4	+0.4
New Jersey	+6.1	+31.3
New Mexico	−0.6	−8.4
New York	−0.9	+27.8
North Carolina (White)	−6.5	+9.1
North Carolina (Negro)	0.0	+19.0
North Dakota	+31.6	+17.2
Ohio	−5.5	−1.3
Oklahoma	+5.7	+17.1
Oregon	+3.2	−4.4
Pennsylvania	+9.5	+0.5
Rhode Island	+10.3	+30.8
South Carolina (White)	+2.2	−7.4
South Carolina (Negro)	+0.6	+4.4
South Dakota	+14.2	+5.0
Tennessee	+1.9	+6.6
Texas	+10.2	+13.3
Utah	+2.2	+24.9
Vermont	+5.6	−21.8
Virginia	−16.4	−1.6
Washington	+4.3	+20.9
West Virginia	−19.8	−2.9
Wisconsin	−21.6	+2.4
Wyoming	−6.9	+8.6
Total	+1.9%	+10.1%

* Excludes those without degrees.

3—POTENTIAL NEW TEACHERS ENTERING TEACHING, ENTERING OTHER OCCUPATIONS, AND CONTINUING ADVANCED STUDY CLASS OF 1960

Field of preparation	Entering teaching	Entering other occupations	Continuing advanced study	Other[a]
All high-school fields combined	68.1%	7.4%	6.1%	18.4%
Women's physical education	79.6	2.7	2.2	15.5
Library science	77.8	5.8	5.0	11.4
Mathematics	74.2	6.5	5.8	13.5
Music	74.2	3.7	6.7	15.4
English	73.5	3.9	6.1	16.5
General science	71.0	5.6	6.7	16.7
Art	70.5	4.0	4.7	20.8
Foreign languages	69.6	3.4	13.1	13.9
Industrial arts	68.6	9.4	5.0	17.0
All sciences	67.5	7.5	8.1	16.9
Biology	66.2	7.2	8.5	18.1
Speech	65.9	5.2	9.0	19.9
Home economics	65.5	9.7	2.6	22.2
Social studies	64.9	7.0	7.7	20.4
Chemistry	64.4	12.4	9.8	13.4
Men's physical education	64.3	7.0	6.7	22.0
Physics	62.1	10.5	9.9	17.5
Commerce	60.7	16.7	2.4	20.2
Journalism	53.2	22.1	...	24.7
Agriculture	47.5	20.7	7.6	24.2
Elementary school	82.2	1.4	1.7	14.7
Total	73.6%	5.0%	4.4%	17.0%

[a] Comprises those in military service, homemaking, seeking a job, or unknown.

teaching positions. Hence their number and qualifications are unknown. It is known only that they could have sought teaching positions earlier but did not do so, and that they may be available before next September only because of changed personal conditions. Thus the only "new supply" identifiable in advance is the current class of college seniors about to be graduated.

For prospective elementary-school service this class includes 6830 men (12.7 percent of the total) and 46,804 women. This potential of 53,634 is only 1.9 percent greater than the 52,630 who were graduated a year ago. The gap between supply and demand is emphasized by the fact that this new supply is equal to only 6.3 percent of the estimated 857,353 elementary-school classrooms now in operation.

For prospective high-school service the 1961 class of 85,427 includes 44,907 men (52.6 percent of the total) and 40,520 women. The increase over last year is 10.1 percent. This group of potential candidates is equal to 15.5 percent of the 551,609 high-school teachers now in service in the public schools.

The national field-by-field totals are shown in Table 1. The three high-school fields now being emphasized—foreign languages, mathematics, and science—lead in percent of increase over last year: 26.5, 18.2, and 15.9, respectively. But this larger prospective supply yet remains far below the immediate needs of the high schools. In some of the smaller high schools these subjects are not offered at all, offered in alternate years, or taught by teachers drafted from other fields.

Table 2 shows the percent of change from 1960 to 1961 in the production of college graduates qualified for teaching in each state. In 18 states the new group of potential elementary-school teachers will be smaller in 1961 than a year earlier. California will anticipate the largest increase (1040) while the largest decrease (345) is in prospect in Wisconsin.

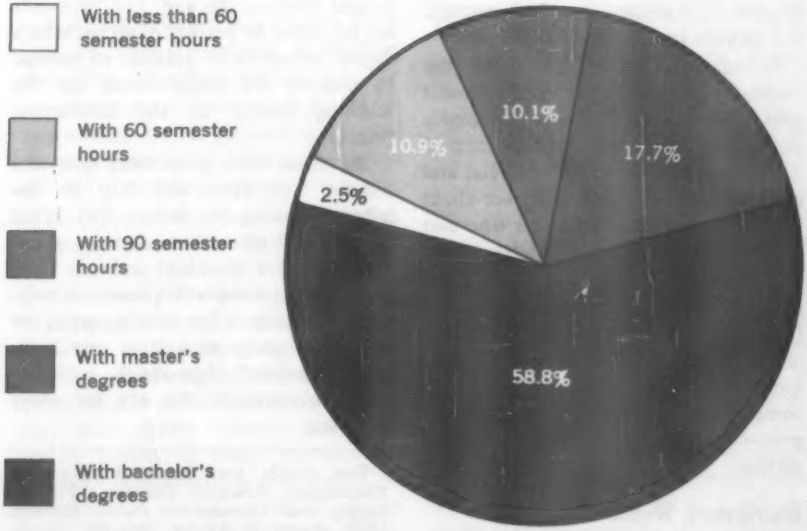
New York has promise of an increase of 1332 prospective new high-school teachers over 1960, but the graduates of a number of its institutions distribute themselves widely among the states. The largest decrease (only 71) is the outlook in Iowa.

How Many Will Become Teachers?

All of the foregoing figures refer to the gross number of graduates who will meet the requirements for certification. By no means may all of them be expected to enter classroom service next September. Many college students who take the required professional subjects have first occupational ambitions in other fields. In the annual national study, therefore, the occupations which claim members of the preceding year's graduating class are reported.

Of the 52,630 graduates of 1960 who prepared for elementary-school teaching, about 43,000 (82.2 percent) accepted teaching positions last September. The estimated total number of new teachers actually employed at this grade level was 85,700. This means that the preceding class of college graduates contributed fewer than one-half of the new recruits. The others, drawn from the general population, comprise a group yet to be studied, particularly with regard to the amount, the specific

PREPARATION OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS IN 38 STATES 1960-61*



* Data not available in 12 states.

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nature, and the recency of their formal preparation, and their previous occupational experiences.

Of the 77,573 members of the 1960 class prepared for high-school teaching, about 53,000 (68.1 percent) accepted teaching positions. The estimated total number of new teachers actually employed in high school was 69,000. The preceding class of college graduates thus contributed about 77 percent of the new recruits. The qualifications of the others—those coming from the general population—will be the subject of future study.

But the ability of high schools to attract these newly prepared college graduates varies widely from field to field, as shown in Table 3. At the top of the list are women in health and physical education, 79.6 percent of whom accepted teaching positions last September. Next was library service which attracted 77.8 percent of the newly prepared group. Music and mathematics drew 74.2 percent of the new potential supply into the classroom; English, 73.5 percent; art, 70.5 percent; and foreign languages, 69.6 percent.

Science was just a little under the all-fields average, with 67.5 percent going into teaching. Home economics classrooms gained only 65.5 percent of the potential, while the commercial and business subjects failed to attract about 2 of every 5 college graduates who had prepared to teach these subjects.

These figures sharply point up the limited meaning of "new supply." The full meaning is brought out only if the number actually needed (frequently more than the number employed) is compared with the number of newly produced graduates who enter classroom service.

Elementary Needs Greatest

Overriding all else, the need for a much larger supply of really well-prepared elementary-school teachers continues to stand out. Belatedly, the complex nature of this task is being recognized. In recent years state after state has proclaimed the college degree as a minimum standard of preparation. But achievement of this goal yet remains an ideal rather than an accomplished fact. In all but a few states the licensing of nongraduates is condoned, frequently in considerable numbers. And in many states teachers far below college graduation continue in service with only nominal encouragement to further study. The up-to-date facts are not available in several states, but the graph shows for 38 states as a group the percent of elementary-school teachers who have at least four years of college.

No Solution in Sight

The total number of bachelor's degree graduates will continue to rise. The 1962 class is expected to equal or exceed the record of 434,000 established in 1950. Since that date the percent of the total class prepared for teaching has ranged between 26 and 31. Prospects are for about 30 percent of all bachelor's degree recipients to indicate an interest in meeting the requirements for the teaching license in the foreseeable future.

But these three ponderable questions remain: (a) How will they be distributed among the fields? (b) What percent will offer themselves as active candidates for teaching? and (c) How soon will the acceptable preservice preparation become a five-year program for new elementary- as well as new high-school teachers? Here are the problems which overshadow the cry for sheer numbers.

For details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1961.* Research Report 1961-R9. Washington, D. C.: the Association, April 1961. 48 p. $1.

Pupil v. School Board

Courts will uphold school-board rules that are not unreasonable, arbitrary, or capricious

LITIGATION ON BEHALF of public-school pupils challenging the validity of local school-board rules is not uncommon. The subject matter of contested school-board rules has reached into many facets of school administration pertaining to pupils; for example, admission to school, pupil health, pupil transportation, religious practices in the schools, and school discipline.

Among the 1960 published appellate court decisions of direct concern to public-school pupils, judicial relief was sought from:

- A school-board rule setting a November 15 cut-off birth date for entry of six-year-old children into the first grade at the beginning of the September term.
- A school-board rule on the parking and hours of removal of students' cars from the school parking lot.
- Rules by school boards in Michigan and in Texas, prohibiting married students from participating in certain activities, including competitive sports.

The school-board rules in these cases were upheld by the courts.

Power To Make Rules

Legal authority of local school boards to make rules concerning the rights, privileges, and responsibilities of pupils stems from statutory enactments. Statutes may confer *express* power on school boards to adopt measures in given areas of school administration; or the power of a board to act in specific situations may be *implied* from a general grant of authority to make reasonable rules relative to anything necessary for the proper establishment, maintenance, and management of the public schools.

Whether the rule-making power is express or implied, it must be exercised within federal and state constitutional limits.

Sometimes the challenge of a school-board rule in court proceedings raises a fundamental constitutional question; for instance, the transgression of First Amendment rights to freedom of worship in the historic "flag salute" cases. Often the attack on the validity of a rule rests on the claim that the rule conflicts with existing statutes, or that the rule adopted is unreasonable, arbitrary, capricious, and discriminatory.

The Court's Role

To what extent will courts interfere in the exercise of the authority or discretion of a school board in matters delegated to the administrative body by law? As a general rule, unless there is a clear abuse of discretion or a violation of law, courts are disinclined to disturb school-board rules and regulations. The presumption exists in favor of the reasonableness and propriety of a rule adopted within the framework of applicable statutes. The reasonableness of the rule is judged by the objective to be attained, as related to the interests of the schools. Both the rule itself and its enforcement must be reasonable in the light of existing circumstances. In passing on the legality of a rule, the court does not consider the wisdom or expediency of the rule, but whether it

is a reasonable exercise of the power and discretion of the board.

How these legal principles are applied by the courts may be seen from several cases involving the married high-school student. With the increase in marriages among the public-school students in recent years, school boards are concerned with two problems: school discipline due to the presence of married students in the school, and drop-outs of married teen-agers.

To date, courts in four states have adjudicated the validity of school-board rules affecting the rights of public-school students to continue their education after marriage, or the rights of married students to participate in extracurricular activities, especially playing football.

The first case by a pupil contesting a local board rule barring married students from admission to school arose in Mississippi in 1929. (*McLeod v. State ex rel. Colmer,* 122 So. 737.) The reason behind the rule was that the admission of married students would be detrimental to good government and usefulness of the schools. In holding the rule to be arbitrary and unreasonable, and therefore void, the Mississippi Supreme Court said that

> it is commendable in married persons of school age to desire to further pursue their education and thereby become better fitted for the duties of life. And they are as much subject to the rules of the school as unmarried pupils, and punishable to the same extent for a breach of such rules.

At issue in a 1957 case was a rule adopted by a county school board to the effect that students married during the school year would be automatically expelled for the remainder of the current school term; those married during vacation could not attend school for the next term. A senior high-school student of good scholastic standing, who was refused the privilege of finishing the current school term following her marriage, asked the court to intervene. Her suit claimed the rule was so unrelated to the interests of the school or its affairs as to amount to an abuse of discretion by the school board. The Tennessee Supreme Court, however, upheld the rule as neither arbitrary nor unreasonable under the facts disclosed. (*State ex rel. Thompson v. Marion County Board of Education,* 302 S. W. (2d) 57.) This opinion observed:

> Boards of Education, rather than Courts, are charged with the important and difficult duty of operating the public schools. So, it is not a question of whether this or that individual judge or court considers a given regulation adopted by the Board as expedient. The Court's duty regardless of its personal views, is to uphold the Board's regulation unless it is generally viewed as arbitrary and unreasonable. Any other policy would result in confusion detrimental to the progress and efficiency of our public school system.

Where school-board rules permitted married students to continue their education without interruption, but denied them privileges of engaging in extracurricular activities, courts in Texas and in Michigan recently decided against the married, sports-minded student. These tribunals sustained the rule as a reasonable exercise of the board's discretion on the basis of the particular local facts and considerations involved. However, the Michigan Supreme Court was divided 4 to 4 on this question. This split left standing the lower court holding that the school district did not violate the statute guaranteeing to all students an equal right to public educational facilities by excluding married high-school students from activities other than classroom work. To four justices, the rule was unreasonable and arbitrary in that it was based solely on the fact that the students were married.

For details on recent cases see: National Education Association, Research Division. *The Pupil's Day in Court: Review of 1960.* Research Report 1961-R6. School Law Series. Washington, D. C.: the Association, April 1961. 51 pp. 75¢.

Three children in 100 are mentally retarded. Most urban school districts provide special classes for those who are able to attend school

Special Classes for Handicapped Children

TEACHERS, AND STUDENTS preparing for teaching, interested in entering the field of special education will find expanding opportunities in this direction as shown by a recent study by the NEA Research Division. Public schools are offering services to handicapped children in a variety of ways. The trend toward special classes seems to be on the increase.

Undoubtedly this increase in services, like other increases in the school program, is due in part to the increase in over-all population. Also, a larger proportion of handicapped children survive infancy and grow to adulthood than formerly. It is part of our present-day philosophy that these boys and girls should have the opportunity to grow up to an adulthood as normal as possible and to use to the fullest extent those capabilities that have not been damaged.

This is not altogether the public schools' problem, but school authorities have recognized their responsibility to provide an education insofar as possible. This can be done by sending special teachers to the child's home, or by putting the child in a regular classroom and making allowances for his special disability. However, this particular study of administrative practice concerned the setting up of separate classrooms for the handicapped, except in the case of speech therapy.

Questionnaire replies from school superintendents in urban school districts show that

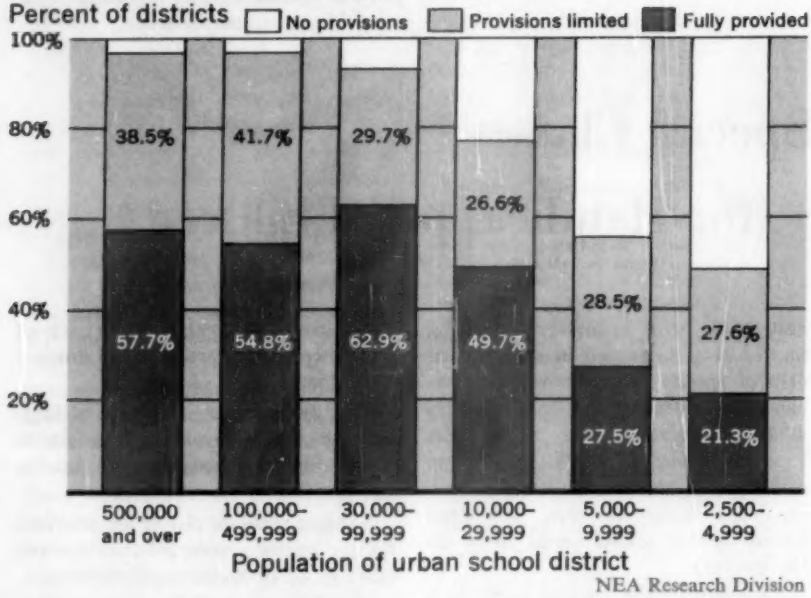
- A much larger percentage of large urban districts provide separate classes for the handicapped than do smaller size districts.
- More separate classes are provided for the mentally retarded than for any other group of handicapped children.
- Fewest classes are provided for emotionally disturbed children.
- Where no special provisions or only limited ones are made for the handicapped, the trend is toward expansion of services. Only in a very few instances are they being curtailed.

The Study

The questionnaire was sent to a stratified sample of 1495 urban school districts. The tabulation was based on a return of 875, or 58.5 percent, of those sent, and weighted estimates were then derived for all urban districts.

The questionnaire asked whether separate classes are held for the hard of hearing, those with limited vision, the physically handicapped, the mentally retarded, slow learners, and emotionally disturbed children, and whether speech therapists are provided. It asked if these services are fully provided or provided only to a limited extent, and whether

MOST LARGE DISTRICTS HAVE SEPARATE CLASSES FOR MENTALLY RETARDED CHILDREN, 1958-59



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in the future, the school district plans to expand or curtail them.

More Services in Large Districts

For every type of handicap listed on the questionnaire, except emotional disturbance, the largest urban districts—those with 500,000 or more population—offered separate classes either fully or on a limited basis in well over 90 percent of the replies. There is no reason to assume that the percentage of handicapped children is higher in large school districts than in the small ones. It seems more likely that the large districts, having more pupils, find it more practical to establish separate classes, while the smaller districts cannot establish a class for two or three children.

Persons considering special education as a career and parents who are searching for the most likely places to find special educational facilities for their handicapped children might take note of the fact that the public schools are more likely to have special programs in the larger urban districts.

The smaller the district, the less likely it is to have separate classes or special provisions such as speech therapists. It may be that handicapped children are integrated in the regular classroom, or in cases too serious for the teacher of normal children to handle, they may miss a public education altogether.

Of course, in many cases, public or private welfare agencies make arrangements for these children. Some defects are so serious that the children cannot be handled on a group basis or without removing them from their homes. The interesting thing is that handicapped children are no longer considered completely a welfare problem, but one that the schools have accepted as at least partially theirs. A survey such as this can also indicate to the welfare agencies in a general way what areas are being

taken care of by the schools and where there are gaps that the agencies might fill.

Classes for the Mentally Retarded

The most frequently reported special provision in this survey was separate classes for the mentally retarded: 96 percent of the school districts in areas of 500,000 or more population provide them, fully in nearly 58 percent, to a limited extent in nearly 39 percent.

According to the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 126,000 or 3 out of every 100 children born each year are mentally retarded. The current trend is to leave these children in their homes rather than put them in institutions. These children cannot be handled in a classroom of normal children, yet many of them are physically able to go to school and are educable to some degree. Therefore, in many communities, the public schools have stepped in to fill this need.

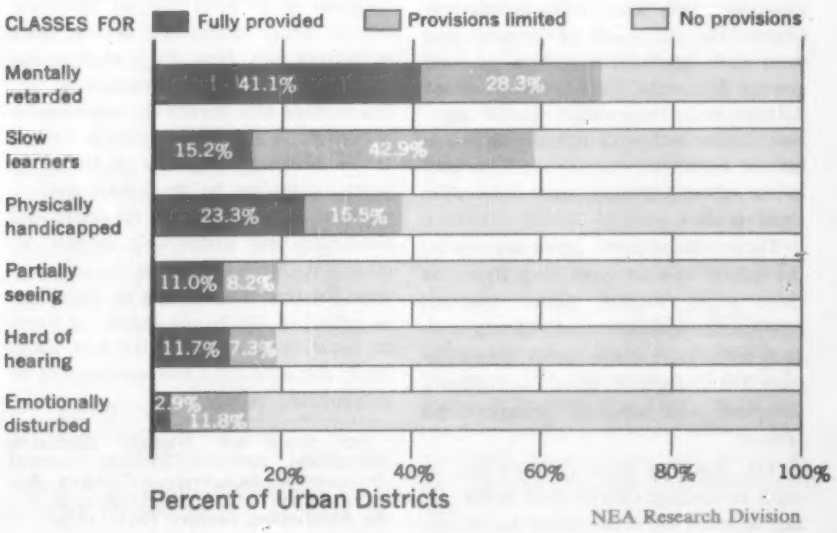
Slow Learners

Slow learners have more hope of profiting from an education than do the mentally retarded. The survey does not indicate, however, that as many separate classes are held for them. About 23 percent of districts with populations of 30,000 or more provide separate classes for slow learners, and a little less than two-thirds provide them to a limited extent. Of course, slow learners can be helped by other means such as remedial teachers and ability grouping. It may be that many school districts expect to have in their regular classes a certain percentage of pupils who are slow learners and consequently do not consider them handicapped.

Speech Therapy

Speech defects are a widely found handicap and one that the schools can help with individual therapy in a great many cases. If the speech defect is due to brain damage or deep-seated emo-

SEPARATE CLASSES FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN, 1958-59



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tional causes, medical help is required. But for many children who stutter, lisp, or pronounce certain words indistinctly, speech therapy can improve their whole school situation. This service is widely offered in school districts of 10,000 or more population. In 36 percent of the school districts of 500,000 or more population, speech therapy is fully provided; in 64 percent, partially provided. In districts of 100,000 to 499,999 population, it is provided either fully or partially in all but 7 percent. However, in the smallest districts—2500 to 4999 population—speech therapy is fully provided in only 21 percent of the districts and provided on a limited basis in another 21 percent.

Physical Handicaps

This is the area of the greatest contrast between the offering of the largest school districts and the offering of the smallest. Separate classes for general physical handicaps, such as crippled limbs, are provided in all school districts of 500,000 or more population, in 90 percent of those 100,000 to 499,999 in population, but in only 28 percent of those with less than 5000 population. Classes for the hard of hearing and those with limited vision show an even greater difference. Here, all districts of 500,000 or more population offer separate classes either completely or on a limited basis, but only about 7 percent of the school districts under 5000 offer them at all.

These classes mean extra expense to the school district providing them, as these pupils require special teaching equipment, specially built schools with such features as ramps rather than stairways for crippled children, and often a complete and separate transportation service.

Yet, teaching these children can be most rewarding; usually their minds are not touched by these other handicaps, so it is a challenge for the teacher to help them make the most of their lives.

The Emotionally Disturbed

The handicapped children who are least likely to have separate classes provided for them are the ones who are emotionally disturbed. Even though these children are difficult to handle in the normal classroom, putting them all together may not be the answer. Psychiatric clinics and special facilities that completely remove the child from his environment may be necessary. Thus we see that fewer than 8 percent of the largest districts have fully provided separate classes. There is not much trend toward adding this service in those districts where it is not provided or provided only to a limited extent.

Future Expansion of Services

In the immediate future, many of the public schools represented by this survey indicated that they expect to expand their services for handicapped pupils. Advances in medicine may alleviate some of the problem by devising new operations, using new types of medicine at an early age, or inventing new or better mechanical devices such as hearing aids. New drugs such as the tranquilizers and improvements in social welfare may benefit the emotionally disturbed. A new Child Health Center at the National Institutes of Health is being established by the federal government to study the causes of congenital handicaps, and particularly mental retardation. So while there is certainly need for research and special education in behalf of the handicapped for years to come, it is to be hoped that eventually the need for these services will be substantially reduced.

For details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *Special Provisions for Handicapped Children.* Research Memo 1961-5. Washington, D. C.: the Association, January 1961. 11 p.

The Junior High School Today

No longer an innovation, the junior high school is found in 53 percent of the urban school systems

BEGUN SHORTLY BEFORE 1920 as a means of bridging the gap between the self-contained classroom of the 8-grade elementary school and the completely departmentalized 4-year high school, the junior high school continues to win acceptance in public-school organization.

A recent NEA Research Division survey of administrative practices in urban school districts shows that in the 10 years from 1948-49 to 1958-59, the junior high school advanced from a minority position to that of being reported by the majority of urban school districts.

The survey showed that during the decade from 1948-49 to 1958-59:

- The percent of districts having separate junior high schools rose from 40.1 percent to 53.3 percent.
- During the 10 years, junior high schools were established for the first time by 15.1 percent of the school districts, and were eliminated by 1.9 percent.
- The total number of junior high schools in these districts increased 50.5 percent in the 10-year period.
- In addition to those having separate junior high schools, 23.3 percent of the districts reported junior-senior high schools as their typical secondary-school organization.

Organizational Patterns

Reorganization of grades 7 and 8 from the traditional pattern of the 8-grade elementary school is not limited to the separately organized junior high school, now reported by 53.3 percent of the urban school districts. Only about 20 percent of the school districts having elementary schools, of those that reported in 1958-59, indicated that the typical form of elementary school was one that extended through eight grades.

Of the unified school districts that enroll pupils of all grade levels, about 21 percent reported a 6-6 type of organization, and about 2 percent a 7-5 pattern. These junior-senior high schools, however, are rare in the school districts of more than 30,000 population.

In a district of less than 10,000 population, the school enrollment usually is less than 2000. The number of pupils in grades 7 through 9 is likely to be too small to justify a separate school. The combined junior-senior high school is the characteristic type in smaller districts.

The 1.9 percent of districts that had eliminated separate junior high schools were about equally divided between those that had reverted to the 8-4 pattern and those that had shifted to the junior-senior high-school plan.

Table 1 shows the complexity of the various organization patterns in which the separate junior high school may be found. It should be noted that Table 1 reports only the *typical* form of organization, and that a number of districts did not report a single type of organization. One or more junior high schools may be found in a district where the *typical* organization does not include the junior high schools, or in a district not having one typical plan of organization. The junior high schools reported by all districts are included in the figures represented by the chart.

Size as a Major Factor

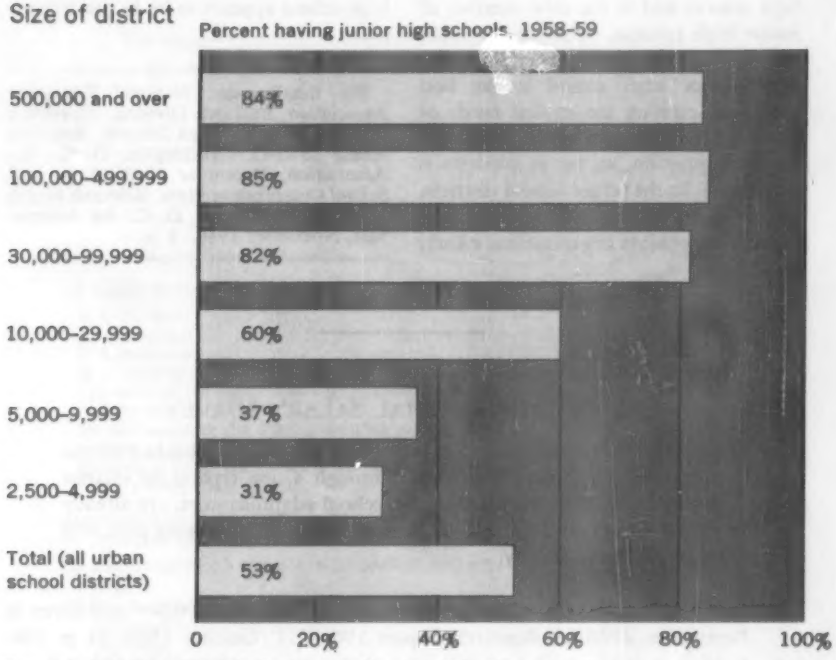
In general, the larger the district, the more likely it was to have separate junior high schools. Eighty-four percent of the districts having populations of 500,000 or more had one or more separate junior high schools in 1958-59, but only 31 percent of the districts with less than 5000 population had them. In districts below 30,000 in population the percent dropped off sharply with each reduction in size.

A higher percent of the districts with populations of 10,000 to 29,999 had in-

1—ORGANIZATION PATTERNS IN URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS, 1958-59

Type of school system and pattern of school organization by grades beginning with grade 1	Population of school district				All districts (weighted estimates)
	100,000 and over	30,000–99,999	10,000–29,999	2,500–9,999	
Unified school systems:					
6-3-3	48.5%	53.9%	30.4%	11.1%	26.2%
6-3-3-2	14.8	6.8	1.8	1.1	2.6
6-2-4	4.9	9.8	18.1	17.2	16.8
6-6	1.0	0.9	15.2	32.3	21.3
7-5	3.0	0.6	2.9	1.1	1.8
8-4	10.9	8.9	9.4	17.2	13.4
Other (4-4-4-2, 5-3-4, 5-4-3, 6-4-2, 6-2-4-2, 6-4-4, 6-6-2, 7-2-3, and 8-4-2)	4.0	3.3	2.3	2.2	2.4
Total unified systems	87.1%	84.2%	80.1%	82.2%	84.5%
Elementary-school systems only:					
6	.....	0.6%	2.3%	1.7%	1.3%
6-2	1.0%	4.8	6.4	3.8	3.8
8	1.0	3.0	4.7	8.9	4.8
Other (5-3 and 6-3)	.....	.....	0.6	1.7	0.7
Total elementary only	2.0%	8.4%	14.0%	16.1%	10.6%
High school systems only:					
4 (grades 9-12)	4.9%	5.9%	5.3%	1.7%	4.2%
Other (3-3, covering grades 7-12; and 4-2, covering grades 9-14)	6.0	1.5	0.6	.....	0.7
Total high school only	10.9%	7.4%	5.9%	1.7%	4.9%
Total of districts reporting a typical pattern of organization	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number of districts reporting a typical pattern of organization	101	336	171	180	
Number of districts replying but NOT reporting a typical pattern of organization	41	38	6	2	

SEPARATE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS ARE TYPICAL OF THE LARGE SCHOOL SYSTEMS



Percents based on districts that enrolled grades 7 and 8.

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augurated junior high-school programs during the preceding 10 years than had any other size district—22 percent.

Reasons for Expansion

Increase in the number of separate junior high schools was the result of the inauguration of new programs in 57 percent of the districts which changed the number of separate junior high schools. This reason was given by 77 percent of the districts under 30,000 in population, but by less than one-third of the larger districts.

In the larger districts above 30,000 in population, enrollment increases appeared to be the major cause for increasing numbers of junior high schools. This cause was checked by 70 percent of the districts of this size in which the number of junior high schools had changed.

Secondary-School Reorganization

Students of secondary-school administration seem to be largely in agreement that grades 7 and 8 belong in a secondary-school organization. A long-term process of shifting these two grades from an elementary-school to a secondary-school setting appears to be continuing. Although a minority of some one-fifth of the urban school districts still retain the time-honored 8-4 plan, trends of the past decade suggest that the number may continue to diminish.

The trends of the past 10 years show substantial increases both in the number of districts having separate junior high schools and in the total number of junior high schools. Whether the separate junior high school or the unified junior-senior high school is the best means of meeting the special needs of preadolescent children seems to remain an open question, so far as practice is concerned. In the larger school districts, junior high schools and senior high schools as separate organizations clearly represent the dominant pattern at present. In the systems below 10,000 in population, the combined junior-senior high school appears to be in the ascendancy.

For details, see: National Education Association, Research Division. *Operation of Separate Junior High Schools.* Research Memo 1960-42. Washington, D. C.: the Association, December 1960. 5 p.; and *School Organization Plans.* Research Memo 1960-41. Washington, D. C.: the Association, November 1960. 8 p.

TWENTIETH BIENNIAL SALARY SURVEY

THE TWENTIETH BIENNIAL SALARY SURVEY is being published in the 10 reports listed below. Numbers 1 through 4, the reports on salaries scheduled for classroom teachers and school administrators, are already available. Numbers 5 through 10, the reports on salaries being paid, will become available shortly.

1. *Salary Schedules, Classroom Teachers, Urban Districts 100,000 and Over in Population, 1960-61.* Research Report 1960-R11. October 1960. 31 p. 50¢.
2. *Salary Schedules, Classroom Teachers, Urban Districts 30,000-99,999 in Population, 1960-61.* Research Report 1961-R2. February 1961. 59 p. 75¢.
3. *Salary Schedule Maximums for School Administrators, 1960-61, Urban Districts 100,000 and Over in Population.* Research Report 1960-R14. November 1960. 47 p. 75¢.
4. *Salary Schedule Maximums for School Administrators, 1960-61, Urban Districts 30,000-99,999 in Population.* Research Report 1961-R5. March 1961. 60 p. $1.
5. *Salaries Paid Classroom Teachers, Principals, and Certain Others, 1960-61, Urban Districts 100,000 and Over in Population.* In process.
6. *Salaries Paid Central-Office School Administrators, 1960-61, Urban Districts 100,000 and Over in Population.* In process.
7. *Salaries Paid Classroom Teachers and Certain Other School Employees, 1960-61, Urban Districts 30,000 to 100,000 in Population.* In process.
8. *Salaries Paid Principals and Certain Other School Employees, 1960-61, Urban Districts 30,000 to 100,000 in Population.* In process.
9. *Salaries Paid Central-Office Administrators, 1960-61, Urban Districts 30,000 to 100,000 in Population.* In process.
10. *Salaries and Salary Schedules of Urban School Employees, 1960-61.* (Summary of the biennial survey.) In process.

Medians of Scheduled Salaries, 1960-61

Preliminary; subject to reclassification of school districts by population on the basis of the 1960 Census

Position	Group I 500,000 and over	Group II 100,000–499,999	Group III 30,000–99,999
Number of districts providing schedules	26	124	509
CLASSROOM TEACHERS			
B. A. minimum	$4,375	$4,200	$4,250
M. A. minimum	4,650	4,500	4,550
B. A. maximum	7,021	6,653	6,500
M. A. maximum	7,250	7,272	7,090
Top maximum (for highest level of preparation recognized; all districts)	7,575	7,605	7,400
Six-year maximum (for districts reporting such a salary class)	8,075	7,950	7,975
Doctorate or seven-year maximum (for districts reporting such a salary class)	7,988	7,800	7,800
ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY OFFICERS IN SEPARATE SCHOOLS			
(for districts reporting a schedule for the position; numbers vary)			
Elementary school:			
Head teachers, teaching principals	8,050	8,300	7,920
Supervising principals	10,488	9,750	9,179
Assistant principals	9,200	9,000	8,634
Junior high school:			
Principals	11,000	10,371	9,950
Assistant principals	9,350	9,385	9,134
Senior high school:			
Principals	11,593	11,373	10,800
Assistant principals	9,775	9,893	9,500
Counselors	8,423	8,500	8,363
Deans	8,213	10,415	8,506
Heads of departments	9,050	9,000	8,000
ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY OFFICERS IN CENTRAL OFFICE			
(for districts reporting schedules for the positions; numbers vary)			
Supervisors	10,330	9,720	8,680
Consultants	[a]	9,825	9,735
Co-ordinators	10,320	9,500	9,840
Directors	12,500	11,640	10,020
Assistant superintendents:			
Second rank	18,914	[a]	[a]
Highest or only	16,250	14,805	12,240
Superintendents	25,000	19,269	15,375

Source: Twentieth Biennial Salary Survey reports on salaries scheduled for classroom teachers and administrators; see items 1 through 4 on page 50.

[a] Fewer than 5 cases; median not shown.

Ten Years of Change

in Teacher's Salary Schedules

EACH YEAR the NEA Research Division tabulates the main provisions of salary schedules for classroom teachers in large urban school districts, grouped by population. The Division tries to get information for each district, but the respondents are not the same each year. Differences in successive years are also caused by reorganization of districts and population shifts.

Reports each year give the median amounts of scheduled salaries and the percents of districts following various salary practices. Changes from year to year are studied and are considered by teachers and by school authorities in recommending local salary policies and practices.

In order to examine certain trends over the past 10 years in a constant group of large districts, all districts that responded for each of the three school years, 1950-51, 1955-56, and 1960-61, were identified. (These districts were among the 173 that had been classified as having a population of 100,000 and over.)

The 99 districts reporting in all three years included 89 cities and 10 urban counties. This article reports on certain salary trends in these 99 districts over the 10-year period.

Medians of Minimum and Maximum Salaries

Median salaries for the 99 school districts are shown in Table 1. The number of schedules providing for each preparation level and the medians of the scheduled salaries for each of the three years are reported.

The salaries shown in Table 1 are in current dollars. Attention is called later to these amounts shown in constant dollars as measured by consumer price levels.

In 1960-61, in the median district of the 99, the starting salary for the college graduate is $4300; the median top maximum, $7630. The corresponding figures 10 years ago were $2600 and $4700.

All 99 schedules are represented in the median top maximum, for the highest level of preparation recognized. In 1960-61, the highest level is the doctorate in 56 districts, six years in 17 districts, and the master's degree in 26.

The medians for the six-year and doctorate classes, however, include only the

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IN 99 LARGE URBAN SCHOOL SYSTEMS:

MINIMUMS increased more than maximums.

PURCHASING POWER increased at all levels of preparation.

SALARY CLASSES to recognize six-year and doctorate preparation gained majority adoption.

EXTENDED-SERVICE INCREMENTS beyond the normal maximum gained recognition.

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schedules that recognize the respective levels. A system that recognizes both the six-year level and also the doctorate pays a higher salary for the latter. Because a number of systems with relatively low salaries do not recognize the six-year level, but do recognize the doctorate, the figure shown for the doctorate barely exceeds that for the six-year level.

The percents of increase in median minimum and maximum salaries over the 10 years are shown in the first four columns of Table 2. The apparent increases, however, need to be evaluated in terms of certain other factors.

Purchasing Power

Rising prices have reduced the purchasing power of the dollar. During the past 10 years, the level of consumer prices, as measured by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, rose an average of nearly 2 percent a year. From September 1950 to September 1955 the price increase was 10.1 percent. From September 1955 to September 1960, the increase was 10.4 percent. For the 10 years the increase was nearly 21.5 percent.

In constant dollars of September 1950 value, the medians of scheduled salaries were as follows:

	Constant dollars, September 1950 as 100.0		
	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61
B.A. minimum	$2,600	$3,088	$3,539
M.A. minimum	2,700	3,183	3,704
B.A. maximum	4,300	4,905	5,638
M.A. maximum	4,600	5,223	6,002
Top maximum	4,700	5,404	6,280
Six-year maximum	5,033	5,699	6,395
Seven-year or doctorate maximum	5,238	5,631	6,440

Price increases absorbed a large part of the apparent salary increases. There remains, however, an average gain in purchasing power of about one-third over the 10-year period. This amount represents a potential higher standard of living for teachers.

Earnings of Other Workers

Another way to evaluate the apparent salary increases in the 99 districts is to study the movement of wages and salaries in general. Figures are reported by the U. S. Department of Commerce; the latest are for 1960.

Increases for all workers, as for teachers, are offset in part by price in-

1—MEDIANS OF SCHEDULED SALARIES, BY PREPARATION LEVEL: 99 SCHOOL DISTRICTS 100,000 OR MORE IN POPULATION

Classification	1950-51		1955-56		1960-61	
	Number of districts reporting	Median of scheduled salaries	Number of districts reporting	Median of scheduled salaries	Number of districts reporting	Median of scheduled salaries
ALL DISTRICTS						
B. A. minimum	99	$2,600	99	$3,400	99	$4,300
M. A. minimum	97	2,700	99	3,504	99	4,500
B. A. maximum	99	4,300	99	5,400	99	6,850
M. A. maximum	97	4,600	99	5,750	99	7,293
Top maximum	99	4,700	99	5,950	99	7,630
LIMITED NUMBER OF DISTRICTS						
Six-year maximum	32	5,033	44	6,275	56	7,770
Seven-year or doctorate maximum	24	5,238	41	6,200	56	7,825

creases. Disregarding losses due to price changes, the increases in earnings of all wage-or-salary workers (calendar year), and the average percent of increase in five salary schedule medians (as of September of the respective years) of teachers in the 99 districts, are as follows:

1950 to 1955: all workers, 27.9%
teachers, 27.5

1955 to 1960: all workers, 23.1
teachers, 27.3

1950 to 1960: all workers, 57.4
teachers, 62.4

The teachers in these 99 school systems received salary schedule increases that were slightly greater than the increases in earnings of all workers. The relative gain in the teachers' schedules was about 5 percentage points in the 10 years.

Various studies have shown that the average earnings of professional workers are substantially higher than those of workers in general, and that teachers' salaries are far below the earnings of other professional groups. Until some real acceleration occurs in the relative rate of increase in teachers' salaries, large urban school districts will continue to be handicapped in staffing their schools.

Recognition for Experience

Salary schedules for teachers usually provide for increases each year until a maximum salary for the class is reached. The successive salaries are called *salary steps* or *schedule steps*. The increase over the preceding year is called the *annual increment*. The median number of annual increments to reach the maximum is 12, in both the bachelor's and the master's degree salary classes.

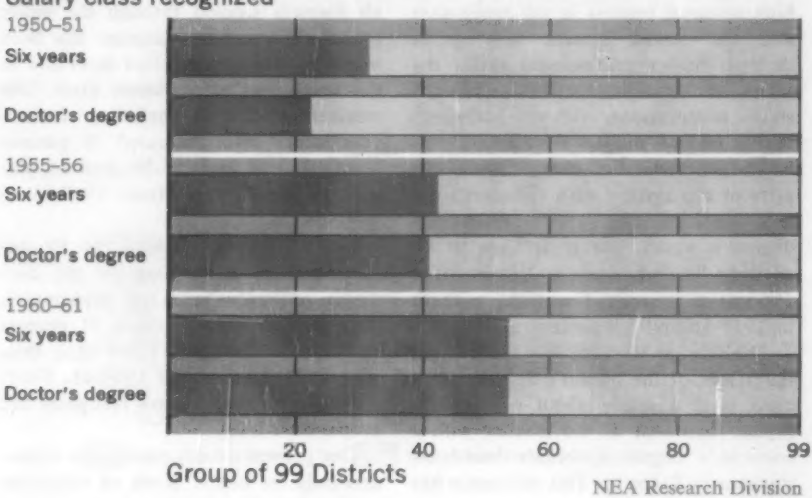
Ten years ago, the corresponding salary classes provided a median of 12 increments in the bachelor's degree class and 13 in the master's degree class. The change is toward reducing the number of increments and enlarging the size. The median increment for the bachelor's degree salary class was $130 in 1950-51. In 1960-61 it is $200.

A persistent weakness in salary schedules for teachers is the low reward for experience. In the 99 districts the median maximum salary for the teacher

2—PERCENTS OF INCREASE IN MEDIANS OF SCHEDULED SALARIES: 99 SCHOOL DISTRICTS 100,000 OR MORE IN POPULATION

Classification	In current dollars			In dollars of constant value (September 1950=100.0)		
	1955-56 over 1950-51 (5 years)	1960-61 over 1955-56 (5 years)	1960-61 over 1950-51 (10 years)	1955-56 over 1950-51 (5 years)	1960-61 over 1955-56 (5 years)	1960-61 over 1950-51 (10 years)
ALL DISTRICTS						
B. A. minimum	30.8%	26.5%	65.4%	18.8%	14.6%	36.1%
M. A. minimum	29.8	28.4	66.7	17.9	16.4	37.2
B. A. maximum	25.6	26.9	59.3	14.1	14.9	31.1
M. A. maximum	25.0	26.8	58.5	13.5	14.9	30.5
Top maximum	26.6	28.2	62.3	15.0	16.2	33.6
Average, 5 medians that represent all districts	27.5	27.3	62.4	15.8	15.4	33.7
LIMITED NUMBER OF DISTRICTS						
Six-year maximum	24.7	23.8	54.4	13.2	12.2	27.1
Seven-year or doctorate maximum	18.4	26.2	49.4	7.5	14.4	22.9

10-YEAR INCREASE IN NUMBER OF SCHEDULES PAYING HIGHER SALARIES FOR PREPARATION BEYOND MASTER'S DEGREE



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with a bachelor's degree is only 59.3 percent above the median minimum. Ten years ago the B.A. median maximum was 65.4 percent above the minimum. Table 3 shows the relationships.

Even when advanced preparation and long experience are both taken into account, the salary difference between the first-year teacher and the teacher with highest preparation and longest experience, who earns the top maximum, is relatively slight. The median of top maximum salaries is only 77.4 percent above the B.A. median minimum. The same relationship 10 years ago was 80.8 percent.

The high rates of turnover characteristic of the teaching profession, especially the resignations of men teachers after a few years of teaching, are known to be due in part to the low incentives offered to those who make teaching a life career.

Over the decade, increases in the minimums were greater than increases for experienced teachers. However, school districts are now moving toward greater recognition of experience. The increases for the first five years of the past decade, as shown in Table 2, clearly favored the minimum salaries. The increases in the second half of the decade, however, showed almost no advantage for the minimums.

Figures available for *all* districts reporting from the population groups represented by the 99 show that this apparent trend toward higher increases for maximum salaries is currently continuing. The median for the bachelor's degree maximum increased 5.4 percent in the one year from 1959-60 to 1960-61, whereas the minimum increased only 3.4 percent. The median for the master's degree maximum increased 4.9 percent, the minimum only 2.3 percent.

Recognition of Advanced Preparation

Teachers sometimes wonder whether the investment of time and money in a

master's or other advanced degree is compensated for by increased income. Although the individual usually receives high personal returns in self-realization and the school system may profit through higher professional skills, the salary differentials are low. Table 3 shows comparisons, with the bachelor's degree median minimum as 100.0.

The difference between the initial salaries of the teacher with a master's degree and the one with a bachelor's degree is small, but it appears to be growing. The advantage is 4.7 percent in 1960-61 as compared with 3.1 percent in 1955-56 and 3.8 percent in 1950-51.

The teacher who reaches the median maximum of the master's degree salary class is at a salary about 6.7 percent higher than that of the teacher with a bachelor's degree (percents based on medians in Table 1). This difference has changed only slightly in the past 10 years. It was 7.0 percent in 1950-51, and 6.5 percent in 1955-56.

Preparation levels beyond the master's degree are being recognized in many more school districts than formerly. Table 1 shows the number of districts reporting each salary class for the three school years under study. The master's degree has been recognized by all districts studied through the entire period. The striking increase has been in the six-year preparation level and in the seven-year or doctorate class. The number of districts including the six-year salary class increased 38 percent from 1950-51 to 1955-56, and 75 percent in the 10 years from 1950-51 to 1960-61.

In 1950-51, only 24 of the 99 districts had a salary class for the doctorate or seven years of preparation. This number had increased 71 percent by 1955-56, and had more than doubled (133 percent) by 1960-61. Fifty-six of the 99 districts now recognize this preparation level.

Our present society places ever higher demands for higher levels of education and technical skill. If teachers are to stay a reasonable distance ahead of the educational level of the general population, increased recognition of advanced study by teachers seems essential.

3—INDEXES OF RELATIONSHIP AMONG MEDIANS OF SCHEDULED SALARIES: 99 SCHOOL DISTRICTS 100,000 OR MORE IN POPULATION

B. A. Minimum = 100.0

Classification	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61
ALL DISTRICTS			
B. A. minimum	100.0	100.0	100.0
M. A. minimum	103.8	103.1	104.7
B. A. maximum	165.4	158.8	159.3
M. A. maximum	176.9	169.1	169.6
Top maximum	180.8	175.0	177.4
LIMITED NUMBER OF DISTRICTS			
Six-year maximum	193.6	184.6	180.7
Seven-year or doctorate maximum	201.5	182.4	182.0

Extended Service

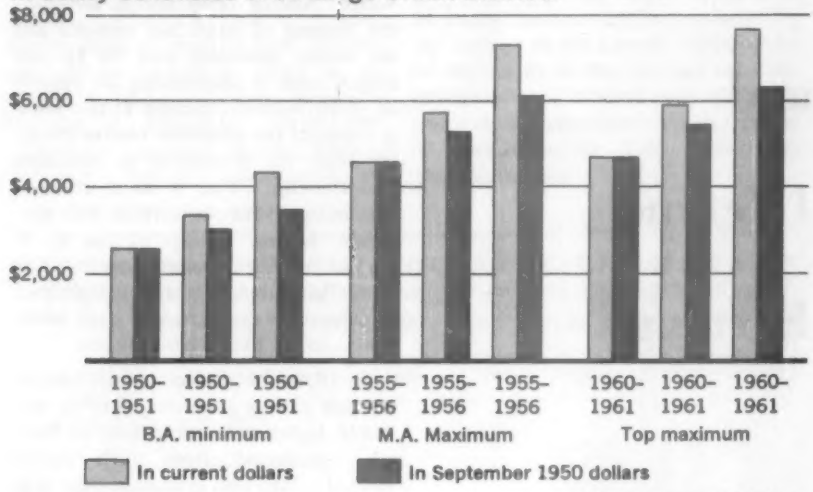
A provision being frequently included in salary schedules is that of giving increments beyond the regular maximum, at intervals of several years, to recognize extended service. In 1950-51 none of the 99 schedules included such a provision in any of the training classifications. In 1960-61, 16 of the 99 schedules included this provision, which recognizes by increases in salary those teachers who have devoted many years to teaching. There was, then, an increase from zero to slightly over 16 percent in the number of districts that recognized extended service.

Superior Service

A provision very frequently discussed when speaking of salary schedules is that of rewarding superior service

MEDIAN SALARIES FOR CLASSROOM TEACHERS

In Salary Schedules of 99 Large Urban Districts



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through some form of merit pay. In 1950-51, one of the 99 districts had a superior-service provision in its schedule. In 1960-61, five of the 99 districts had such a provision; four of these were in Florida, which has a state requirement for such a provision. So, there was an increase from 1 percent to 5 percent in the number of districts providing for superior service in their salary schedules, but no change in the number that had voluntarily adopted such plans.

Comparisons of Samples

This survey was based on only 99 of a group of 173 districts. Figures were studied to test the relationship between this constant sample of 99 districts reporting in three successive surveys, and the varying samples consisting of all districts reporting in each of the three surveys. The medians for the 107 school systems that reported in 1950-51, for 112 that reported in 1955-56, and for 150 that reported in 1960-61 were compared with the medians for the 99 districts that were represented in all three school years. The two sets of figures were extremely close together. The average difference in the medians for the complete sample and for the 99 districts was slightly less than 1.03 percent. The most extreme difference was 4.7 percent; in some instances there was no difference. In general, the relationships among salary medians and the figures on percents of increase from one survey to the next were closely similar.

For local salary studies it is desirable, of course, to have schedule information available for as many different districts as possible. This makes it possible to select a comparable group of school systems for intensive study. For national figures, however, this analysis of trends in 99 school districts over a 10-year period is another practical proof of the comparability of varying samples and of the dependability of even smaller samples than usually have been presented.

Education and Lifetime Earnings

Four years of college education now costs $6200. The difference between four years of college and four years of high school is worth $178,000 in lifetime earnings.

FACTORS THAT DETERMINE the level of a worker's income are numerous and varied. Among other things, however, the amount of education received and the ability possessed play by far the largest roles in determining the income of many workers. Income in this sense is a part of the economic returns resulting from the investment in education and training. There is some evidence that income tends to increase with education. Income surveys of the U. S. Bureau of the Census, for instance, show that individuals with a high level of education can expect to earn much more income than those with less.

In 1958, the median annual income of male college graduates ($6374) was $1826 higher than the income of those who graduated from high school ($4548). Men who graduated from high school in turn received $1334 more than men with eight years of elementary education. Similarly, for women, the median income of college graduates in 1958 was $2903. This was much higher than that received by high-school graduates ($2036), and those not going beyond elementary school ($909). It follows from these data that education is directly related to income.

Other data of the Bureau of the Census indicate that the relative importance of education to income also varies considerably according to color. The median annual income of nonwhite men completing grade school was only $2328, compared with $3276 for the comparable white group. White men who had had four years of high-school education received an additional income of $1378 (or 42 percent increase over $3276), while nonwhites with equivalent education made an extra income of only $666 (or 29 percent increase over $2328). Thus, the economic gains associated with four years of high-school education were much greater for whites than for nonwhites.

The preceding analysis was based on the income data for one year. The total income earned in a *lifetime* would provide a more valuable basis for comparing earnings of persons with different amounts of education. Miller, in his study, "Annual and Lifetime Income in Relation to Education: 1939-1959" (*American Economic Review*, December 1960, p. 962-86), estimated lifetime earnings of individuals with different levels of education. He used as the basis for his calculations the recurring data of annual income surveys conducted by the Bureau of the Census. Miller came to the conclusion that for men the completion of an additional level of schooling is closely associated with an increase in lifetime income. Table 1 illustrates this information.

1—LIFETIME INCOME (EARNINGS) BASED ON ARITHMETIC MEANS FOR MALES IN SELECTED AGE GROUPS, BY YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1939, 1946, 1949, 1956, AND 1958

Years of school completed and age	1939[a]	1946[b]	1949[c]	1956[d]	1958[c]
INCOME FROM AGE 18 TO DEATH					
Elementary: Total	[e]	[e]	$113,330	$154,593	$154,114
Less than 8 years[d]	[e]	[e]	98,222	132,736	129,764
8 years	[e]	[e]	132,683	180,857	181,695
High school: 1 to 3 years	[e]	[e]	152,068	205,277	211,193
4 years	[e]	[e]	185,279	253,631	257,557
College: 1 to 3 years	[e]	[e]	209,282	291,581	315,504
4 years or more	[e]	[e]	296,377	405,698	435,242
INCOME FROM AGE 25 TO DEATH					
Elementary: Total	[e]	$87,004	104,998	143,712	143,808
Less than 8 years[d]	[e]	74,369	91,095	123,295	120,965
8 years	[e]	98,702	122,787	168,004	169,976
High school: 1 to 3 years	[e]	107,940	141,870	192,254	198,881
4 years	[e]	135,852	174,740	237,776	241,844
College: 1 to 3 years	[e]	161,699	201,938	281,553	305,395
4 years or more	[e]	201,731	286,833	391,992	419,871
INCOME FROM AGE 18 TO 64					
Elementary: Total	$40,005	[e]	100,413	138,127	137,786
Less than 8 years[d]	[e]	[e]	86,912	117,930	115,418
8 years	[e]	[e]	116,968	161,124	161,643
High school: 1 to 3 years	56,653	[e]	132,371	182,795	188,362
4 years	71,453	[e]	159,487	224,529	231,509
College: 1 to 3 years	77,775	[e]	180,841	254,092	279,640
4 years or more	109,961	[e]	251,493	354,457	382,982
INCOME FROM AGE 25 TO 64					
Elementary: Total	37,172	74,071	91,932	127,047	127,286
Less than 8 years[d]	[e]	62,334	79,654	108,310	106,449
8 years	[e]	84,687	106,889	148,033	149,687
High school: 1 to 3 years	53,011	92,044	121,943	169,501	175,779
4 years	67,383	114,023	148,649	208,322	215,487
College: 1 to 3 years	73,655	138,871	173,166	243,611	269,105
4 years or more	104,608	168,983	241,427	340,131	366,990

Source: Miller, Herman P. "Annual and Lifetime Income in Relation to Education: 1939-1959." *American Economic Review* 50: 962-68; December 1960. Reproduced with permission.

[a] Restricted to persons reporting $1 or more of wage or salary income and less than $50 of other income for native whites and Negroes.

[b] Total money earnings.

[c] Total money income.

[d] Includes persons reporting no years of school completed, not shown separately.

[e] Not available.

In 1958, for instance, an individual who graduated from high school could receive $75,862 more lifetime income (age 18 to death) than the one who had only elementary-school education. The difference between the expected life earnings of high-school and college graduates was more striking. In 1958 an expected lifetime income of a college graduate was $435,242 as compared with $257,557 for a high-school graduate. On the basis of these data, then, one may conclude that, on the average, four years of college education would yield a return equivalent to $177,685 in lifetime income.

An analysis of lifetime income trends from 1939 to 1958 affords further evidence of the strong influence of education on earnings. Increases of lifetime income since 1939 have been significant for all groups with the exception of those having less than eight years of schooling. As evident from the table, the better educated groups have made greater relative gains in expected lifetime income over the past two decades. The incomes of college graduates from age 25 to age 64 rose $262,382, or 251 percent, from 1939 to 1958, compared with $148,104, or 220 percent, for high-school graduates over the same period.

These relative gains in income over the years may be expressed in another way. In 1946, for example, college graduates could expect to earn (from age 25 to age 64) only 48 percent ($168,983/$114,023) more than high-school graduates. Twelve years later, however, the differential rose to 70 percent ($366,990/$215,487), reflecting a greater relative income gain for the college group. The differential of lifetime earnings between elementary- and high-school graduates increased in favor of the latter from 35 percent in 1946 to 44 percent in 1958, showing a sharp increase in the earnings of high-school graduates over the period.

The preceding discussion clearly shows that education has an important influence on lifetime income expectancy of the working force. Statistics from the Bureau of the Census reveal a marked increase in the percents of persons with higher levels of schooling. In large measure as a result of this upward trend in the nation's educational attainment, the average annual income of individuals also rose considerably.

Nevertheless, there are good reasons for believing that many persons still do not receive as much education as they should. This is particularly true for nonwhites and the rural farm population. There still exist wide disparities in the educational attainment of different groups within the population. In 1958, according to the Bureau of the Census, the average number of school years completed was much higher for white men (11.1 years) than for nonwhites (8.2 years). The median level of educational attainment of rural farm men was only 8.7 years, as compared with 11.2 years for the city men.

In order to improve the potential earnings of the general population, it is necessary, therefore, to provide more educational and training programs for the underprivileged groups. It is always possible that a good education will promote the growth of skills and abilities of individuals and therefore open up new opportunities for increasing their incomes. This is important not only for improving the economc productivity of the individual, but also for promoting the welfare of our society.

Based on: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Income of Families and Persons in the United States: 1958.* Current Population Reports, Consumer Income, Series P-60, No. 33. Washington, D. C.: the Bureau, January 15, 1960. Tables 26 and 27.

Miller, Herman P. "Annual and Lifetime Income in Relation to Education: 1939-1959." *American Economic Review* 50: 962-86; December 1960.

Why Few School Systems Use Merit Ratings

Lacking satisfactory plans of evaluation, large school systems have found that merit pay has led to discontent and misunderstanding.

"THE BEST TEACHERS deserve the highest salaries. The only fair way to pay teachers is to rate them all and then pay them according to how good they are," say many school-board members, parents, and other friends of schools and teachers. The report of the President's Commission on National Goals stated recently that merit pay should be universally adopted, with appropriate safeguards to insure fair treatment. Although merit pay for teachers sounds sensible, practice does not agree with theory, as many school systems have found out.

A Long-Time Study

Beginning in the school year 1938-39, the NEA Research Division has been recording certain merit-pay provisions in teachers' salary schedules. In 1938-39, study of the schedules received from 225 school districts of 30,000 or more population showed that 20.4 percent included a superior-service maximum. The kind of merit pay called a "superior-service maximum" authorizes the board of education to award superior teachers higher salaries than may be paid by the regular schedule to teachers of less than superior ability.

By 1958-59 the urban population had grown so that schedules were available from 539 districts of 30,000 or more population. Only 6.2 percent of the schedules included provisions for rewarding superior service. A review in mid-1960 showed that during the preceding 21 years, the number of these school districts having superior-service maximums had not exceeded 49 in any one year. But 170 different districts had given them a trial.

Why Do These Provisions Disappear?

The NEA Research Division is often asked why merit schedules have been abandoned. Seeking an answer, the Division asked this question of the 91 districts that in at least two different years in the preceding 21 had included superior-service maximum provisions in their salary schedules, only to drop them later.

Nearly two-fifths of the 71 replies said that the plans had not been put into effect, or were not really merit plans. About a tenth said the plans were still being used (although not included in the printed salary schedules). Another tenth agreed that the plan had been dropped, but were noncommital as to the reasons.

Thirty replies gave at least a partial explanation for the rescinding of the merit provisions. These systems employ some 50,000 classroom teachers and represent a wide body of experience. The summary of replies given in the chart reflects, as nearly as possible, the actual words of the free-answer responses of school officials to the question, "Why was the plan dropped?"

The basic reason for giving up plans of merit pay appeared to be that *no satisfactory plan had been developed for selecting the superior teachers.* The corollary, stated with equal frequency, was that *the plans had created dissension.* Words such as *ill will, friction, resentment, misunderstanding,* and *suspicion* were used in reporting the negative reactions of the staff.

WHY 30 SCHOOL DISTRICTS DROPPED PLANS FOR REWARDING SUPERIOR TEACHERS WITH HIGHER MAXIMUM SALARIES

1. *Evaluations unsatisfactory*—Difficult to determine who deserved the extra pay; not enough data to support evaluation; no assurance that rating was accurate; evaluation subjective; inconsistency among principals; no satisfactory instrument for evaluation; impartial rating impossible. (12 districts, 36 percent)
2. *Dissension created*—Plan was controversial; hubbub was great; dissatisfaction, friction, ill will, resentment, or misunderstanding among teachers tended to create suspicion and distrust. (12 districts, 36 percent)
3. *Ratings not based on merit*—Majority of teachers received top ratings; awards given on basis of seniority; rating was not discriminative, was passed around. (5 districts, 17 percent)
4. *Sense of injustice created*—Some felt it was unfair; there was suspicion of discrimination; morale was low; charges of favoritism were made. (4 districts, 13 percent)
5. *Opposition by teachers organizations.* (4 districts, 13 percent)
6. *Quota system restrictive*—Quota system froze out opportunity for younger teachers, was arbitrary. (3 districts, 10 percent)
7. *Burden on raters*—Not sufficient supervision to give assurance of accuracy; too heavy a burden on limited number of people; much record keeping; evaluation process cumbersome. (3 districts, 10 percent)
8. *Partial financing cause of resentment.* (2 districts, 7 percent)
9. *Discontinuance recommended by a survey.* (2 districts, 7 percent)
10. *Poorly inaugurated*—Was imposed without consent of teachers. (2 districts, 7 percent)

Replies from school administrative officers in 30 school systems which abandoned superior-service maximum salary provisions between 1938-39 and 1959-60; includes only those reasons given by two or more school districts. Includes only school districts 30,000 and over in population.

State Law and Teacher Ratings

Laws in Delaware and in New York requiring state-wide plans of merit pay for teachers have been repealed—Delaware's in 1947, New York's in 1955. These plans seem to have been eliminated for the familiar reasons—the ratings proved so undependable that teachers and administrators became dissatisfied and the plans were abandoned. On the other hand, a plan was put into effect in Florida in 1960-61. Each school system in the state is required by law to provide career increments on a merit basis. The Florida Education Association, in its 1961 legislative program, has recommended that the plan be made *optional* rather than mandatory.

The Utah School Merit Study Committee, appointed in 1953, has sponsored local studies for developing evaluation methods that might be used in merit pay plans. At least one of these local studies is still in process. Recent recommendations by the Committee for continued state support of local merit pay studies or merit plans were rejected by the 1961 Utah legislature.

Merit Pay in 1960-61

For 1960-61, a preliminary count has identified 701 schedules from school districts 30,000 or more in population. Fifty-eight of these schedules, or 8.3 percent, authorize or require that superior service be rewarded with higher salaries. Fourteen of the 58 schedules (2.0 percent) are in Florida; these have been mandated by the state. The 58 also include 12 schedules (1.7 percent) in which superior-service maximums have been reported in earlier years as inoperative. The remaining 32 school districts (4.6 percent), have voluntarily adopted and, so far as is known, have put into effect plans for rewarding superior service. Two of these 32 schedules are in districts of 100,000 or more population, the remaining 30 in districts of 30,000-99,999 population.

What Is the Answer?

If it is assumed that merit rating for salary purposes is desirable, and that the only drawback is failure to develop better instruments for ranking teachers according to efficiency, further efforts at valid identification of superior teachers seem to be the key to solving the problem. Most school systems include both elementary and secondary schools. Criteria are needed that apply fairly to teachers of many different subject fields and of pupils of various ages. Extensive efforts in the past to develop such measures have met only limited success.

However, if the aim of the salary policy is to improve the professional service that teachers can give their pupils, it seems doubtful that the best approach is through discriminative ratings for salary purposes. A schedule is needed that offers salaries high enough to attract persons of professional ambition and promise, and that rewards experience and advanced preparation. Except that existing salaries are commonly too low, this is the typical kind of salary policy today. It leaves to other phases of supervision and administration the responsibility for eliminating teachers who do not meet basic requirements of proficiency, the responsibility for creative evaluation of every teacher, and the responsibility for recognizing unusual abilities and of giving to their possessors the freest opportunity possible for contributing to educational advancement.

For details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *Why Have Merit Plans for Teachers' Salaries Been Abandoned?* Public-School Salaries Series. Research Report 1961-R3. Washington, D. C.: the Association, March 1961. 51 p. 75¢.

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